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ABSTRACT

A study investigated whether instruction focusing on text structure would affect Japanese college students' listening comprehension. Subjects of the study were 29 students of a women's junior college and 38 students of a national university. Three passages were selected for their comprehensibility of content, short length, and readability. Each was rhetorically organized to show causation, and had a like number of "nodes" or meaningful components. A Japanese passage with a rhetorical framework of comparison, not causation, was also chosen. The students listened to two recordings of the passages, one without rhetorical instruction and one including brief instruction on the rhetorical organization. Tests of recall of the nodes were administered after each listening session. Knowledge of vocabulary was also tested. In the analysis of results, four subject groups emerged: (1) no significant improvement or difference in recall of the English passage, but significant recall of the Japanese passage; (2) some improvement on the English passages after instruction, but not sufficient to grasp main ideas; (3) good initial recall, but with confusion about the second English passage; and (4) no instructional effects. The rhetorical instruction may aid in listening to the target passage more precisely, but knowledge of the text structure does not change the learners' listening process. (MSE)

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The Effects of Rhetorical Instruction on Recall Protocols

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The effects of rhetorical instruction on recall protocols

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1. Introduction

This study attempts to investigate whether instruction focusing on text structure will affect Japanese college students' listening comprehension. Several past studies have suggested that ESL students' unfamiliarity with rhetorical organization of English discourse acts as a negative factor for their comprehension (e.g., Johnson, 1983; Carrell, 1984a; Taylor & Beach, 1984; Amlund, Karoash, & Hulhavy, 1986) and production (Kaplan, 1980; Hinds, 1983, 1987) of English discourse. For instance, examining the effects of different types of English expository prose on ESL students' reading comprehension, Carrell (1984a) argues that most of her ESL subjects seemed to "fail to successfully identify the rhetorical organization of the text they read" (p. 465). Thus, Carrell (1985) argues that explicit instruction geared to the identification of different expository discourse structures is effective in facilitating ESL students' reading comprehension. Also, in terms of production, Kaplan (1980) maintains that ESL students' compositions often deviate from the norm of English expository prose because of their transfer of rhetorical patterns used in their native languages. Hence, like Carrell, he, too insists that ESL students should be given the explicit teaching of rhetorical organization of English discourse, particularly the organization of English expository paragraphs.

What, then, are rhetorical properties of an English expository paragraph? An English expository paragraph has a tightly constructed, hierarchical structure in which a given central idea is presented in a topic sentence and developed by supporting details. A topic sentence may or may not appear at the beginning of a paragraph (Braddock, 1974), yet in a paragraph's hierarchical structure, this sentence is dominant and at the top level of abstraction, or in Christensen's terms, at the top "level of generality" (1975, p. 236). The central idea presented in a topic sentence is explicated by other supporting sentences at the lower levels of generality, in various types of rhetorical organization, such as exemplification, causation, comparison, problem/solution, etc. Sometimes, a paragraph takes the form created by any combination of these different types of organization.

Japanese students tend to be unfamiliar with such a rhetorical structure of an English expository text. Advocates of contrastive rhetoric explain that the reason for this is that Japanese rhetoric is different from English rhetoric. One of these advocates, Kaplan (1980), claims that the paragraph development of English is "linear," whereas the one of Oriental languages is circular, "turning and turning in a widening gyre . . . [with] the subject never looked at directly" (p. 406). However, as Oi (1986) points out, Kaplan's claim, although intriguing, is an impressionistic comment, not supported by solid lin-

guistic explanations.

Another contrastive rhetorician, Hinds (1983), offers more plausible explanations as to the differences between Japanese and English rhetoric. He focuses on a specific Japanese rhetorical style known as "ki-sho-ten-ketsu" (起承転結), which he considers to be the commonest style for Japanese expository writing. Indeed, several Japanese scholars (e.g., Kandori & Muramatsu, 1983) also state that this pattern is most widely used for Japanese expository prose. The rhetorical pattern, which has its origin in classical chinese poetry, can be explained as follows:

A. ki (起) First, begin one's argument.
B. sho (承) Next, develop that.
C. ten (転) At the point where this development is finished, turn the idea to a subtheme where there is a connection, but not a directly connected association (to the major theme).
D. ketsu (結) Last, bring all of this together and reach a conclusion.

(Takemata, 1976, p. 26, cited by Hinds, 1983, p. 188)

The third point, "ten," is missing in English expository writing. Hinds (1983) argues that while Japanese readers appreciate the presentation of an unexpected element in this point, English counterparts regard this as a digression which, in their interpretation, impairs the normal progression of ideas.

The following is the English translation of an article taken from Tensijingo ("Vox Populi, Vox Dei"), the famous newspaper column in the Asahi Shimbun(January 29, 1985). The articles in this column give comments on current social issues in and outside Japan. They are written, originally in Japanese, by a Japanese columnist for the Japanese readers. This English version (1985), written by the editorical board of the Asahi Shim-bun, is the exact translation of the Japanese article, thus maintaining the original organization. The first part, "ki," introduces the topic of ski boom in Japan:

> It was at the end of the Meiji Era (1968-1912) that Major T. E. von Lerch of Austria really began teaching Japanese army officers how to ski. With Japanese officers lined up in front of him, von Lerch shouted something at them in German. No one understood him. An interpreter finally informed them that von Lerch was ordering them to put on their skis. But no one even knew how to put on skis, and von Lerch apparently had a difficult time teaching them. He put on his skis, climbed to the top of the hill and skied down the steep incline. It is reported that officers shouted, "Banzai!" as if they had seen a magic trick performed before their eyes. After the Taisho Era (1912-26) started, Kunio Igaya, the father of Japanese skiing, made skis out of Japanese chestnut boards. He cut a wash-line pole to the appropriate length and used it

as a pole. While walking around the snow-covered mountains, he was captivated by the lure of skiing. Compared to the trials and tribulations in the pioneering days, the ski boom and the fashion shows that color the ski slopes today are like dreams. The number of ski grounds throughout the nation probably totals over 550 now.

The second part, "sho," develops this topic and refers to ski buses:

> The number of ski buses that start out from Tokyo in one winter comes to about 23,000. A lot of them leave on Friday night and return late at night on Sunday. It is healthy and good for both young and old to go to the snow-covered mountains and enjoy skiing, but underlying ski boom is something of a let's-do-everything-together approach.

Then, suddenly the third part shifts to the traffic accident of a ski tour bus:

> Still fresh in our minds is the tragic accident of a ski tour bus carrying students of the Japan Welfare College of Aichi Prefecture falling into a dammed river, resulting in 25 dead. The bus started out at 8:45 p.m. the night before. The deplorable accident occurred about nine hours later. The temperature was very low so that the snow on the highway froze, making it easy for tires to slip.

And finally the article reaches the conclusion, "ketsu," insisting on the danger of operating buses late at night, particularly in winter:

> An investigation is under way but this accident serves to remind us that dangers are attendant on operating buses late at night, particularly in winter. There are dark highways. There are frozen surfaces. Even if there are such bad conditions, will late-night buses continue to be popular because they are "convenient"?

If English-speaking readers read only the first and second parts, could they expect this conclusion? If they were the writer, would they include those two parts? The first part "ki" covers almost half of the entire essay, yet it is not directly related to the writer's central idea that operating late-night buses in winter is dangerous. According to Matsumoto (1987), "ki" and "ten" are necessary for the Japanese readers, because they consider that an essay without these two parts sounds too blunt and too stiff.

Recent studies in cognitive structure and memory, on the other hand, have found out that we process information and generate it with our internal knowledge structure, so that text structure as an external rhetorical construct does not seem to directly affect the comprehension

process. One of the research studies on the relation of text structure to comprehension processes concluded that individual readers tend to reproduce the paragraph they have read by using unconsciously their own "preferable" text structures, although they have the common understanding about what is a "theoretically" well-organized paragraph (Martins, 1982).

The research in the comparison between the processes of comprehending expository and narrative texts approaches the problem as to how differently the readers process textual information according to the different types of text. Although the structure of the narrative text seems to require extra processing capacity, the processing of narrative text takes less time than that of expository text. This paradox raises a controvertial question: Do expository and narrative text lead the reader to utilize different components of comprehension and different types of knowledge structure (1982, Reiser & Black)? Using narrative text, Carrell (1987) investigated the combined simultaneous effects of content and formal schemata. Her findings were: in ESL reading comprehension, (1) when both form and content are familiar, the reading is relatively easy; (2) when both form and content are unfamiliar, the reading is relatively difficult; (3) when either form or content is unfamiliar, unfamiliar content leads the reader into more difficulties than unfamiliar form. Thus, content is generally a more critical factor than form in ESL reading comprehension. Steffensen (1986) explained a strong influence of the schema the reader possessed during reading comprehension. Once the schema is initially set up on the basis of the reader's background knowledge, the readiness for comprehesion based on the schema often distorts the syntactic and semantic information from the text.

These findings claim that the types of text structures do not directly reflect on the cognitive process, but it seems that we build a structure appropriate for comprehending the target paragraphs on the basis of our already possessed knowledge structure.

Thus, we concluded in our previous study that the low level students of English proficiency did not drastically improve their comprehension after the rhetorical instruction. They did not learn how to organize and generate the received information. However, they learned what to pay attention to, resulting that they recalled more information after the instruction but they failed to grasp main ideas both before and after the rhetorical instruction (1986, Sato & Watanabe).

The present study focuses how differently the students at advanced and low English proficiency levels comprehend and write the recall protocols when listening to the target paragraphs, and how differently the rhetorical instruction affects their recognition and recall of the target paragraphs.

The hypotheses are set up in three points:

1) The subjects who are at either end of the English proficiency scale are not affected by the rhetorical instruction.
2) The rhetorical instruction let the subjects learn what to listen to rather than how to listen, so their listening behavior does not improve by the instruction.

3) The subjects' organizing skills in their native language, Japanese, affect their comprehension and reproduction of the target passages.

2. Experimental Procedure

Subjects: 29 students of a women's junior college and 38 students of a national university. (The academic levels of public schools are usually higher than those of private schools except several famous private universities in Japan.)

Materials: Three English expository passages were used: "Smoking Habit," "Job Hunting," and "Hardy's" (See Appendix A). To make the three passages at the same level of difficulty, we wrote them with several controls. First, the content of each passage was familiar enough for general college students to understand without specific background knowledge. Second, the three passages were, approximately, of the same length: 12 sentences and 163-173 words. Matsui and Alff(1986) suggest that for a listening comprehension test using a passage of substantial length, a passage of almost 50 words is suitable for junior high school students and a passage of about 100 words is suitable for high school students. It was assumed, therefore, that the length of our passage would be appropriate for our subjects, college students. Third, when assessed by the use of Gunning's Fog Index(1968), the readability of the three passages ranged from eight to nine, the scores which, according to Gunning, correspond to the reading levels of American eighth to ninth graders.

Fourth, each passage was written with the rhetorical organization of causation (cause-effect), where ideas are not only chronologically but also causally related. Within this overall rhetorical framework of causation, each of the three passages was organized in the following manner. The first two sentences are topic sentences: the first presents a cause, and the second offers a general statement on itseffects. Then, three specific effects are indicated one by one in a sentence. Moreover, each effect is explained by a pair of sentences where two episodic examples, respectively, describe contrastive conditions before and after the causative incident. The final sentence presents a conclusion. Thus, the types of cohesion used between sentences are identical across the three passages (See Figure 1).

Fifth, each passage consists of 12 "nodes," which Carrell (1984b) defines a meaningful "component" of a text. When analyzed according to nodes, our passage manifests an underlying hierarchical structure where different nodes are placed at different conceptual levels. Figure 2 shows this hierarchical content structure in which the node number corresponds to the sentence number. The nodes placed in the upper part of the figure are at the higher conceptual level, thereby conveying more important information; hence, the nodes at Level 1 (N1, N2, and N12) include the information most necessary for the successful comprehension of the whole passage. Alphabets A to F represent cohesive relationships between nodes: "A" represents a causative relationship, by which N2, the effects of N1, are explained by N3, N4, and N5.

A Japanese passage was also prepared. This Japanese passage was

written on the basis of the organization as shown in Figure 1, but it had the rhetorical framework of comparison (See Appendix C).

Figure 1
THE ORGANIZATION OF THE PASSAGE

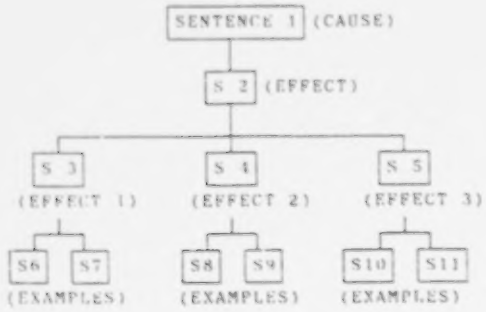
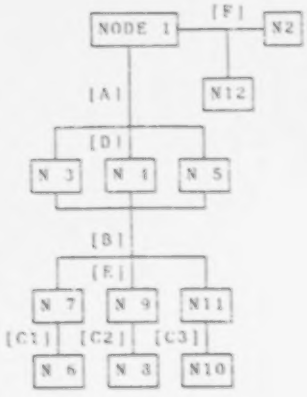


Figure 2
THE NODE STRUCTURE



Recording: The three English passages were recorded on a tape in the order of (1) "Smoking Habit," (2) "Job Hunting," as (3) "Hardy's." The first and third passages were read three times. The second passage was read twice, and after the reading, instruction as to its rhetorical organization in Japanese was recorded. This instruction explained how the passage was organized rhetorically by using such rhetorical terms as a "topic sentence," "supporting details," and "cause and effect" and also by indicating specific sentences to clarify which sentence represents each of those rhetorical terms. The Japanese passage was recorded on another tape, where it was read twice.

Testing Procedure: The experiment consisted of two sessions. Table 1 illustrates the experimental design. In Session 1, the subjects were told to listen to the first passage and also told that they would be given a summarizing task and a True-False test afterward. While listening to the passage, they were allowed to take notes either in English or Japanese. Then, they took a recall test (RT 1), in which they wrote a summary of the passage in Japanese in 10 minuites. While doing so, they were allowed to refer to the notes they had taken. This was done because some research have concluded that cue words for writing a summary greatly facilitates retrieval (Meyer, 1977; van Dijk, 1979). Next, the subjects took a True-False test (TF 1) in 5 minutes without looking at their notes. TF 1 contained 10 questions, each of which asked about the information in a different node or a different cohesive relationship between the nodes (See Appendix B).

Then, the subjects listened to the second passage and the rhetorical instruction. While so doing, they were, again, allowed to take notes.

Finally, the subjects listened to the third passage and took the

second recall test (RT 2) and True-False test (TF 2) in the same manner as RT 1 and TF 1.

A week later, Session 2 was conducted. The same subjects listened to the Japanese passage, and took a recall test (JRT), in which they wrote a summary of the passage by referring to their notes.

After JRT, the subjects' knowledge of vocabulary used in the English passages was checked. The vocabulary items which might be problematic for the subjects had been chosen beforehand, and the subjects were told to classify them into two categories: (1) can understand and (2) don't know.

Table 1
Experimental Design

Session 1	Session 2
1. "Smoking Habit" Recall Test (RT 1) --with notes TF Test (TF 1) --without notes	1. Japanese Passage Recall Test (FRT) --with notes
2. "Job Hunting" Rhetorical instruction	2. English Vocabulary Check
3. "Hardy's" Recall Test (RT 2) --with notes TF Test (TF 2) --without notes	

3. Quantitative Analysis

The quantitative analysis covers three points: (1) to count how many nodes the subjects recalled, (2) to see if their protocols mention the main idea of the target paragraph, and (3) to find if their recall protocols are coherent or not. The results in the first analytical point are indicated by "±Number." "+Number" means the protocals which mention more than six out of the total number (11) of the nodes, while "-Number" indicates that the protocol includes less than six nodes. Concerning the second analytical point, "+Main" stands for the protocol which include the information of both node 1 and 2. The protocol which does not mention Node 12 was accepted, because Node 12 is, as a conclusion, basically a restatement of Nodes 1 and 2. The third analytical point concerns whether there are implicit or explicit expressions to indicate the relationships between the nodes. The different types of cohesive relationships are shown by the alphbets A-F in Figure 2. In order to visualize our analysis, we examined each subject's recall protocol by using Figure 2 and colored the node numbers and the positions of cohesive relationships indicated by each subject in his/her protocol (See Appendix D, Figures I-X). In this manner, we analyzed the three kinds of protocols: protocols for "Smoking Habit" (P1), for "Hardy's" (P2), and for the Japanese passage. Then, there emerged four different

groups of subjects (See Figure 3).

The first group (Group 1, [P→]) consists of the subjects who recalled only a few nodes both in the P1s and P2s. Those subjects made no significant improvement in comprehension after the rhetorical instruction. Their protocols for the Japanese passage, however, mentioned many nodes, including the main ideas, and this means the expository organization did not confuse them at least when the target passage was written in Japanese.

The protocols of Group 2 [P↗]show that the subjects in this group recalled more nodes after than before the instruction, and their P2s tended to indicate the cohesive relationships between the nodes. In this sense, after the instruction, their comprehension did show some qualitative improvement, but still, they could not grasp the main idea. Yet, like Group 1, they stated the main idea in the protocols for the Japanese passage.

The third group (Group 3 [G↘]) consists of those who produced the good P1s, where they mentioned many nodes as well as the main idea, in a coherent way. However, they failed to catch the main idea in the second English passage. It is presumably because that the instruction confused them and thier comprehension processes were somehow interfered by the knowledge from the instruction. Their protocols for the Japanese passage were, as contrasted with the ones of Groups 1 and 2, concisely written with their own words.

Group 4 (G→) did not seem to get any instructional effects on their performance. The target passages were rather easy for them to comprehend. They reproduced all the three passages in a sophisticated fashion. They did not mention all the nodes they could catch, but rather, they selected the nodes which seemed important for retelling the story. Their protocols were logically and concisely written with more abstract expressions.

In addition to the analysis in terms of the three points, we calculated the average scores on TF 1 and TF 2 and got the values of t-test to see if there was some statistical differences between the scores on the two tests. The subjects' knowledge of vacabulary was also investigated by using the vocabulary check list we prepared. When a subject indicated, as "do not know," more than 50% words out ofthe total words specified on the list, we considered that his knowledge of vocabulary was not enough. The differences among the four groups are shown in Tables 2 and 3.

TABLE 2
CHARACTERISTICS OF PROTOCOLS

	Group 1			Group 2			Group 3			Group 4		
	P1	P2	J	P1	P2	J	P1	P2	J	P1	P2	J
Number	-	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Main	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	+
Coherence	-	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

TABLE 3
MEAN OF TF-TESTS AND RESULTS OF t-TEST BETWEEN P1 AND P2

		P1	P2	t-test	vocabulary
G1	n = 9	x = 6.3	x = 7.5	t = 2.475**	X
G2	n = 15	x = 7.0	x = 7.9	t = 1.944*	X
G3	n = 17	x = 7.9	x = 8.5	t = 1.711	0
G4	n = 23	x = 8.9	x = 9.0	t = 0.699	0

p** > .02, p* > .05

4. Qualitative Analysis

A. Analysis of the Recall Protocols for the English Passages

To examine the characteristics of the recall protocols, we attempted a close obeservation of individual protocols for English passages in each of four different groups specified in our quantitative analysis. We examined and compared the two protocols: the first recall protocols for "Smoking Habit" (P1) and the second protocols for "Hardy's" (P2). Our observation clarified the following characteristics of each group.

(1) Group I (P→)

Almost all of the P1s of this group are written simply in a string of unrelated pieces of information, which the subjects randomly picked up. These pieces of information are not coherently connected with one another, nor are they framed within a clear organization. What is worse, the pieces of information those protocols provide are mostly incorrect, skewing the content of the original passage.

For instance, the sample P1, written by Subject I (Appendix D, Example I), contains three sentences, which she merely jotted down. The first two sentences covey information which deviates from the original; the protocol says that Mike smokes, and that everyday he takes the elevator at his office to the third floor.

The majority of P2s of Group I seemingly takes the paragraph-structure of the original passage, with a topic sentence, supporting details, and a conclusion. Yet, this structure is simply a quasi form; in other words, it is the mold which has to be, somehow, filled with words. Hence, in those protocols, there can be found no clear relationship among a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a conclusion; there can be found no clear relationship among different supporting sentences, either.

Subject I's P2 (Example 2) attests to this tendency. Her protocol begins with a topic sentence. However, this sentence fails to impart the main idea of the original passage: both the cause (the opening of Hardy's) and its effect (the change of our eating habits) are missing. Then, she abruptly presents supporting sentences, which are, quite meaninglessly, headed by the numbers "1" and "2." Interestingly, she mistakenly combined the second and third episodic examples of the original. Mentioning the nice service at Hardy's under the second heading of the supporting details, her protocol says,"ファーストサービスには、お金はいらない" ("fast service does not require much monay"). The protocol ends with a conclusion, with no direct relationship with the

preceding sentences. The whole protocol is reduced to a jumble of fragmentary information in an artificial form. Indeed, no transition word (except the numbers "1" and "2") appears in the protocol, and this aggravates the protocol's incoherence.

(2) Group 2 (P↗)

The PIs of Group 2 are similar to those of Group 1, in that they are also a jumble of unrelated pieces of information. They are neither organized nor coherent. In addition, they preserve little information in the original passage. The protocols, therefore, leave notraces of the original.

For instance, Subject 2's PI (Example 3) provides information entirely different from the content of the target passage. The protocol says that Michael smokes and buys 200 yen's worth (a pack) of cigarettes. Then, it abruptly provides another piece of wrong information saying that he shows that he is healthy. All the three sentences of which the entire protocol consists are written in a piecemeal fashion, without any transition words in between; thus, no logic holds them together.

Compared with the PIs, the P2s of this group show some improvements. First, on the surface level, the P2s are organized with a topic sentence, supporting details, and a conclusion. Second, they preserve more pieces of information contained in the original, though most of them are peripheral details. Third, the protocols are more coherent due to such transition words as "第一に" ("first"), "第二に" ("second"), "第三に" ("third"), and "その理由として" ("for"). Yet, the organizational framework of the protocols does not correspond to the one of the original. Whereas the original passageis structured in the rhetorical organization of cause and effect, most of the P2s of this group are organized in different types of expository organization, such as the types based on comparison or reasons. This is because the subjects succeeded in comprehending the information at the lower-level, yet they fail to grasp the top-level information in the original passage.

Subject 2's P2 (Example 4), for instance, incorporates much more information and has a clearer organization than her PI. However, this P2 was again rated as low, because her supporting details correctly mirror the original, but her topic sentence does not. She miscomprehends the main idea of the Hardy's passage, and because of this miscomprehension, she has framed her protocol with the rhetorical organization of reasons, explaining why a fast food restaurant Harry's (?) is popular.

(3) Group 3 (G↘)

The PIs of this Group 3 are well-organized and coherent. The main idea is properly stated and substantiated by details. Subject 3' PI is representative of those of this group (Example 5). This protocol first states explicitly the cause (Mike's stopping of smoking) and its effect (great changes in his life). It, then, proceeds to details, mentioning the three examples of the changes observed in Mike's life. The protocol ends with a conclusion where the subject summarizes the

main idea in a concise manner. The proper use of transition words--such as "第一に" ("first"), "第二に" ("second"), "第三に" ("third"), and "こうして" ("thus")--is also a characteristic of this protocol, which creates the flow of sentences.

Like the P1s, the L2s of Group 3 are well-organized, coherent, and include examples. However, the rhetorical organization in the P2s of this group is a distorted one, as is the organization in the P2s of Group 2. For instance, Subject 3 has misstated the main idea, interpreting that the original passage talks about the advantages of a fast food restaurant (Example 6). Hence, she has structured her P2 in the enumeration type of expository organization, mentioning, in her topic sentence, that a fast food restaurant is becoming popular and that it has three advantages, and in her conclusion, that because of these advantages, people often go there. Thus, although the protocol is well-organized and coherent if it stands alone, it has deviated from the original on the basic ideational level.

(4) Group 4 (G→)

Both the P1s and P2s of Group 4 are equipped with a clear rhetorical framework of causation in which the main idea is clearly stated in a topic sentence, restated in a conclusion, and supported by details. The protocols make use of appropriate transition words, thereby being logical and coherent.

The protocols written by Subject 4 are representative of the protocols of this group (Example 7 and Example 8). Both of his P1 and P2 are properly organized, use appropiate transition words such as "その結果" ("as a result"), "このように" ("thus"), "第一に" ("first"), "第二に" ("second"), "第三に" ("third"), and "つまり" ("to sum up"). The main ideas of the two original passages are preserved without distortion and explicated by examples. What distintuishes Subject 4's P2 from Subject 3's is the selective use of examples. While Subject 3 includes details referring both to the two conditions before and after the causative incident illustrated in the original, Subject 4 focuses on the episodes illustrating the present condition, that is, the condition that has ocurred after the causative incident. Hence, in his P2, Subject 4 refers only to the episodic examples of the changes made by the opening of the fast food restaurant, without describing the past conditions where people had to wait long before the food was served, and so on. Furthermore, Subject 4's protocols are written in his own words and in appropriate Japanese expressions; in other words, they are not verbatim translation of the original passages. For example, one of his sentence says, "店員の態度がよくて気持ちよくたべれる" ("because of the girls' good attitude, we can eat comfortably"), without unduly sticking to the original English expressions, "we can appreciate nice service before having a meal."

B. Analysis of the Recall Protocols for the Japanese Passage

How did the subjects recall and summarize the Japanese passage?

Did the difference in language used in the target passages affect their recall and summary-writing? To probe the relationships between the subjects' skills in summarizing the English and Japanese passages, an observation of each subject's recall procotol for the Japanese passage was attempted.

On the whole, compared with the protocols for the English passages, those for the Japanese passage were found to be of better quality. Yet, when the protocols for the Japanese passage were classified into the four different groups specified above, there emerged the following differences among the groups.

The protocols written by Group 3 and Group 4 tend to provide much information contained in the original Japanese passage and reflect the comparison type of organization of the original. However, this is because those protocols are virtually verbatim versions of the original. The protocols are mostly written in exact wording from the original passage. For instance, the protocols written by Subject 1 (Group 1) and Subject 2 (Group 2) (See Example 9) start with the same sentence, "園芸と育児は育てる人から影響を受けるという共通性がある" ("Gardening and child-raising have a common characteristic: the raiser exerts influence on the raised"), and the original passage begins with this very sentence (See Example 9). Because of this verbatim tendency, those two subjects also present every detail and example, although the task given to them was to summarize the passage. Both Group 1 and Group 2 tend to process the target passage word by word; thus, they fail to recognize which information is more important (i.e., at the higher level) and which information is less important (i.e., at the lower level).

On the other hand, the protocols of Group 3 and Group 4 are written more skillfully. First, their protocols are more concise. For example, Subject 3 (Group 3) and Subject 4 (Group 4) present, in two sentences, only the main ideas of the original and drastically omit peripheral examples (See Example 10). Second, most of the protocols of the two groups are written in their own words and expressions--i.e., they are not the verbatim rewriting of the original. For instance, Subject 3 begins with a sentence saying, "園芸と育児は育てる側の影響を受けるという点で共通している" ("Gardening and child-raising are similar, in that the raiser exerts influence"), whereas Subject 4 starts with a sentence saying, "園芸と育児には、共通性がある" ("There is a characteristic common to gardening and child-raising"). Third, most of the protocols of these groups clearly mirror the organization of the original passage. This clear organization in Group 3 and Group 4's protocols can be regarded as the result of their sophisticated organizing skills, because, unlike Group 1 and Group 2, they deliberately show only the higher-level, main idea and use their own expressions.

Thus, most of the subjects produced better recall protocols when the target passage was written in Japanese; however, both for English and Japanese passages, Group 1 and Group 2 tend to produce rambling, less clear protocols, while Group 3 and Group 4 tend to write well-organized, coherent protocols.

5. Conclusion

The average scores of TF tests increased after the rhetorical instruction. The t-tests significantly proved the difference of the scores between the first and second TF tests, especially in G1 and G2. The TF tests aimed at examining how much the subject comprehended the target passage at the recognition level. The results explains that the subjects at the low proficiency level could recognize more information (nodes) after the instruction. The rhetorical instruction, in this respect, gave the subjects the knowledge of in which part of the paragraph they could obtain what types of information. It partly confirms the second hypothesis.

Analyzing the subjects'recall protocols, we came up with the conclusion that none of the subjects improved their comprehension at the reproduction level. G2 increased number of nodes they could recall after theinstruction. However, as we discussed in our previous study (1986, Sato and Watanabe), they did not grasp the main ideas. On the other hand, G3 seemed interfered by the instruction. It is suspected that the knowledge of the text structure of the target paragraph made them pay more attention on the text structure itself and failed to grasp the gist of the sentences. In other words, the extra attention on the text structure somehow interfered their systematic processing. G1 and G4 were not affected by the instruction. One of the reasons can be consi-d ered with the relations between the complexity of the target passages and their English proficiency levels. According to the vocabulary check list, we foundout the target paragraphs were too difficult for the subjects in G1 and 2. On the contrary, those two paragraphs were too easy for the subjectsin G4 and they did work almost perfectly even in the first recall. In sum, none of the subjects improve their listening behavior by the insturction. They could not learn how to listen to and how to reorganize and to generate the information they had obtained. It supports the first and second hypotheses.

The subjects in G3 and G4 obviously have better organizing skills than those in G1 and G2. Their Japanese recall protocols clarify the difference. G3 and G4 tend to use their own words and sometimes rearrange the order of the nodes. The protocols of G3 and G4 were concisely written. Most of the subjects in G1 and G2, on the other hand, wrote long protocols, where they tended to use the expressions in the original passages. Although they could recall much information, their protocols were verbadum. Similar results were obtained in Connor and McCagg's study (1983): When given a paraphrasing task, weaker ESL students tended to stick to the organization of the original passage, while stronger students used their own words and freely arranged the information of the original. These characteristics show that the advanced subjects create new macropropositons (1982, Martins), and the protocols are more general and less numerous. In this respect, the subjects in G3 and G4 made out the gist of the text more clearly than the others. Thus, the subjects in G3 and G4 got through a deeper information processing and comprehend the Japanese paragraph more precisely and sophisticatedly

than the subjects in G1 and G2. The characteristic of the Japanese protocols correlated with the P1 and P2 protocols. The organizing skills of the language in general must be an important factor for the accurate comprehension and reproduction.

In conclusion, we confirmed the hypotheses in the present study. The rhetorical instruction may work as an aid in listening to the target passage more precisely. However, the knowledge of the text structure does not change the learners' listening process. The important factor for successful comprehension seems to be that the learners have organizing skills as well as vocabulary sufficiently enough to process the information from the passage. According to the findings of the research on the information-processing theories, the learners build and acquire the effective comprehension process through the content-oriented and problem-solving type of exercises. For our further study, we would like to investigate how the organizing skills of the learners' native language relate to their recall of English passages and what kind of exercises are most effective in improving the learners' comprehension process.

Appendix A

English Passage ("Hardy's")

There were few restaurants in our busy town, but recently a fast food restaurant, Hardy's, opened their business. Consequently, our eating habits changed remarkably. First, we can finish our meal quickly. Before we had to wait more than twenty minutes before the food was served. But now we have only to wait a few minutes in front of the counter. Second, we can save much money. Before we had to spend more than a thousand yen on one meal. But now we can order several items like a cheeseburger, a hot coffee, and French fries and pay only a small amount. Third, we can appreciate nice service before having a meal. Before the waitresses at other restaurants were so impolite that we frequently got irritated or felt unpleasant. But now well-mannered girls at Hardy's welcome us and serve the food politely. Consequently, because of the fast service, low prices, and good manners at the Hardy's restaurant, today we can enjoy our meals much more comfortably and often go out to eat there.

Appendix B

True-False Test (on "Hardy's")

1) We can enjoy the food at Hardy's with little money. (N4)
2) We take a lot of time to enjoy our meal at Hardy's. (N3)
3) Hardy's changed our eating habits in three ways. (N2)
4) The food at Hardy's costs less than that at any other restaurant in our town. (N8 & 9)
5) A fast food restaurant opened recently in our town. (N1)
6) The people at Hardy's give us food quickly without a smile. (N11)
7) We are lucky to have a convenient and comfortable restaurant, Hardy's. (N12)
8) We were comfortable at the restaurants that we used to go to, because the waitresses were so nice to us. (N10)
9) The old restaurants in our town served quickly. (N6)
10) We like to eat our meals quickly, so Hardy's started their business. (N1 & 3)

Appendix C

Japanese Passage

園芸と育児は育てる人から影響を受けるという共通点があります。言うまでもなく植物も子供も愛情に対して非常に敏感です。いたわりをもって保護しつつ栽培すれば、植物は早く健康的に成育します。同じように、両親が、愛情豊かに育てれば、子供は幸福に健康に成育します。愛情と並んで大切なものは知識です。栽培者が、日光のあて方、水の量、あるいは肥料の与え方を知っていると、植物は順調に育ち、美しい花を咲かせます。又、両親は、子供が健康に育つように栄養のバランスを考え、情緒が安定した人間に成長するように子供が何を必要としているのかを考えなければなりません。さらに園芸と育児は労力を惜しむことなく尽くしてこそ、よい成果が得られます。栽培者が充分な知識を持っていても、

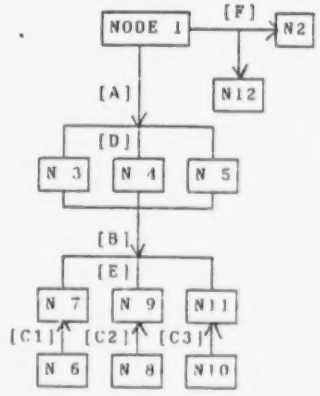
実際に毎日水をやらなければ、植物は枯れてしまいます。一方子供にとっては、毎日が学習ですから、両親は、根気よく子供とつき合って遊ぶことが大切です。このように植物が育つ時も、子供が成長する時にも、育てる側の愛情、知識、そして労力が不可欠なのです。

(　　Gardening and child-raising have a common characteristic: the raiser exerts influence on the raised. Needless to say, both plants and children are sensitive to affection. If raised with consideration and protection, plants grow rapidly and healthily. Similarly, with the parents' affection, the children grow happily and healthily. What is as important as affection is knowledge. If the raiser knows how to expose the plants to the sun, how much water is needed, and how to fertilize the plants, the plants grow smoothly and bloom. And the parents have to consider the balance of nutrition so that their children grow healthily; also, they have to consider what their children need so that the children grow up to be emotionally stable persons. Furthermore, both in gardening and child-raising, if the raiser spares labor, successes cannot be brought about. Even though the raiser has enough knowledge, the plants wither if he does not give them water everyday. On the other hand, as children learn everyday, it is important for the parents to keep their children company and play with them patiently. Thus, both when plants grow and when children grow, affection, knowledge, and labor on the part of the raiser are indispensable.)

Appendix D

Example 1
The First Recall Protocol Written by Subject 1

マイクは、たばこを吸う。毎日、オフイスのエレベーターで３階に行って２００円でたばこを買う。マイクの友だちの多くは、たばこが嫌いなので、マイクはいつも寂しく食事をするが、友だちが、一緒に、食べて話そうと言ってくれたので、マイクの生活は楽しく幸せになった。



(Mike smokes. Everyday, he takes the elevator at his office to the third floor, and buys cigarettes with 200 yen.
Because many of Mike's friends hate smoking, Mike takes a meal, feeling lonely. However, because they told him to eat and talk together, Mike's life has got comfortable and happy.)

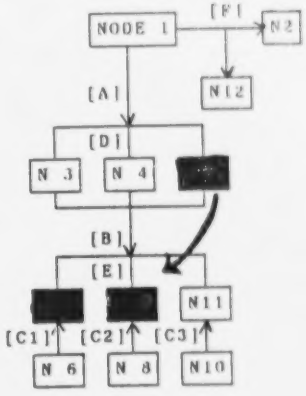
Example 2
The Second Recall Protocol Written by Subject 1

いそがしい街には、いくつかのレストランがあり、そしてファーストフードは便利である。

１.２０分位で食べおわるし、(N7)カウンターで少ししか待たないですむ。

２.１食１、０００円でたりる。(N9)チーズバーガー、ホットコーヒー、フレンチフライなどで値段が安く、(N5)よいサービスだ。ファーストサービススには、お金はいらない。

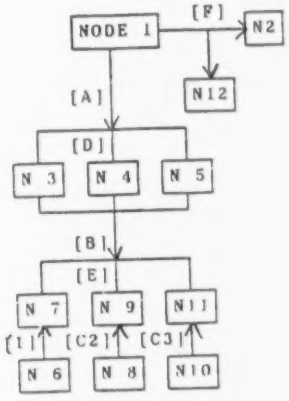
私たちはそこで食事を楽しみながら食べる。



(In a busy town, there are several restaurants, and a fast food restaurant is convenient.
1. We can finish our meal within 20 minutes or so, and we wait only for a little at the counter.
2. 1,000 yen can cover one meal. A cheeseburger, a hot coffee, and French fries and so on, and cheap and good service. Fast service does not require money.
We enjoy our meals comfortably there.)

Example 3
The First Recall Protocol of Subject 2

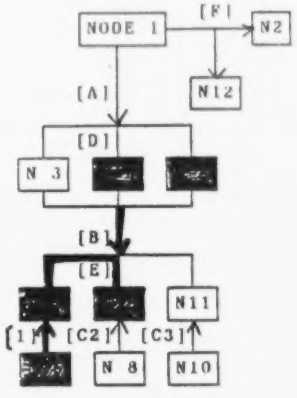
マイケルは、たばこをすうが、１日に２００円分（１箱）すう。彼は、自分が健康であると証明している。マイケルは、自分の人生を楽しんでいる。



(Michael smokes and buys 200 yen's worth (a pack) of cigarettes. He shows that he is healthy. Michael enjoys his life.)

Example 4
The Second Recall Protocol of Subject 2

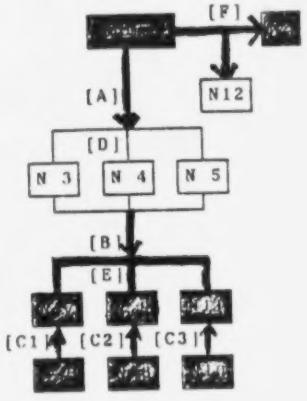
町にはレストランがあるが、中でもファーストフードのレストランである”ハーリー”が人気がある。その理由として、第一に、(N7)料理が早くくる。(N6)ふつうのレストランでは２０分くらいかかるが、ここでは数分でくる。(N4)第二に、安い。(N9)１，０００円でチーズバーガー、ホットコーヒー、フレンチサラダが食べられる。第三に、プレゼントをくれるなど(N5)サービスがいい。今日、私はハーリーレストランで楽しんで居る。



(There are restaurants in a town, and among them, a fast food restaurant "Harry" is popular.
The reasons for this are: first, food can be served quickly. Food is served in 20 minutes at ordinary restaurants, but only in a few minutes here. Second, food is cheap. We can eat a cheeseburger, a hot coffee, and a Frech salad. Third, we can enjoy nice service there; for instance, they give us presents.
Today we enjoy ourselves at Harry restaurant.)

Example 5
The First Recall Protocol of Subject 3

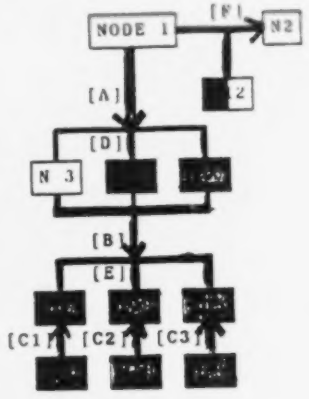
(N1)マイクは友人にタバコをやめるようすすめられた。(N2)ある日そうしてみると彼の生活がかわった。まず第一に、(N6)自分の事務所へいくときエレベーターを使っていたのに、(N7)階段を息切れせずに登れるようになった。第二に、(N8)毎日タバコのために使っていた(N9)２００円を他のもののために使えるようになった。第三に、(N10)彼がタバコを吸うためにさけていた(N11)友人が彼の所へくるようになった。(N12)こうして彼がタバコをやめたために、健康面、経済面、人間関係の面が改善された。



(Mike was advised to stop smoking. One day he did so, and then his life has changed. First of all, while he used to take the elevator to get to his office, he can go up the stairs without feeling breathless. Second, he can spend 200 yen, which he used to use for cigarettes, on something else. Third, his friends who had avoided him because of his habit of smoking, began to approach him. Thus, because he stopped smoking, his health, finances, and human relationships have improved.)

Example 6
The Second Recall Protocol of Subject 3

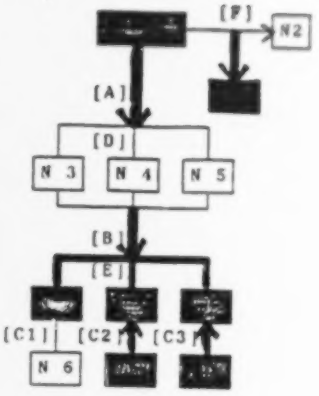
街にはたくさんレストランがあるが、さいきんはファーストフードの店 がはんじょうしている。ファーストフードの店には３つの利点がある。まず、(N6)今までのレストランだと２０分以上待たされるのに、(N7)２、３分ですむ。(N4)第二に安い。(N8)１食３、０００はかかるレストランに対し、(N9)少額でいろいろなものが食べられる。(N5)第三にサービスがよい。(N10)ウエイトレスが無礼でイライラしているのではなく、(N11)あいそうのよいお姉さんが迎えてくれる。(N12)このように、はやい、安い、親切という理由でよくファーストフードの店にいくのである。



(There are many restaurants in a town, but recently, a fast food restaurant propers. A fast food restaurant has three advantages. First, while we have to wait for more than 20 minutes at a usual restaurant, we wait only a few minutes at a fast food restaurant. Second, it is economical. At a usual restaurant, we have to spend 3,000 yen on one meal; however, we can eat a variety of food with a small amount of money at a fast food restaurant. Third, waitresses are not impolite and irritated; instead, amiable girls welcome us. Thus, because of speed, low prices, and kindness, we often go to a fast food restaurant.)

Example 7
The First Recall Protocol of Subject 4

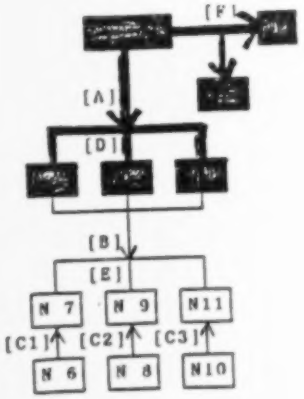
(N1)
あるときマイクという人が禁煙することを
決意した。その結果として、まず第一に、
(N7)
自分のオフィスまで階段で走って行けるよ
うになった。第２に(N8)毎日のたばこ代２００円
(N9)
で他の物が買えるようになった。更に第三
に、(N10)友達はマイクといっしょに食事するの
をいやがっていたが、(N11)禁煙のおかげで友達
から食事にさそわれるようになった。つま
り(N12)マイクは禁煙のおかげで楽しい日々を送
れる様になったのである。



(One day a man named Mike decided to stop smoking. As a result, first, he has begun to run up the stairs to his office. Second, he has begun to buy something else for 200 yen which he used to spend on cigarettes everyday. And third, while Mike's friends used to hate having a meal with him because he was smoking during a meal, they have begun to ask him to have a meal together because he stopped smoking. To sum up, Mike's stopping of smoking has made his life happier.)

Example 8
The First Recall Protocol of Subject 4

(N1)
いろいろなレストランがあるが、最近では
(N2)
ファーストフードの店ができてきて、我々
の食生活の習慣が変わってきている。まず
(N3)
第一に、ファーストフードは、はやく食べ
(N4)
れて、手軽で、第二に、お金があまりかか
(N5)
らない。そして第三に、店員の態度がよく
(N12)
て気持ちよく食べれる。このようにファー

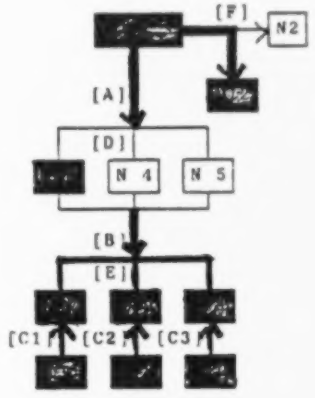


ストフードは便利で手軽で、我々に快いせいかつを与えてくれるのである。

(There are many restaurants , but recently, a fast food restaurant opened their business, and our eating habits have been changing. First of all, the fast food restaurant enables us to eat quickly, and it is handy; second, it is rather cheap. And third, the girls' attitudes are good and we can eat comfortably. Thus, the fast food [restaurant] is convenient and handy, providing us a comfortable lifestyle.)

Example 9
Subject 2's Recall Protocol for the Japanese Passage

(N1)えんげいと育児は、育てるひとに影響を受



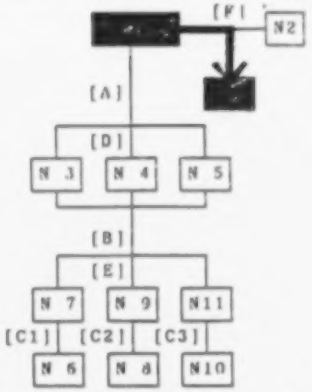
けるという共通点がある。(N3)言うまでもなく、植物も子供も愛情に関してびん感である。(N6)いたわりをもって保護して育てれば植物は健康的に育つ。同じように、(N7)両親が愛情豊かに育てれば子供は幸福にそして健康に育つ。(N8)栽培者が、日光にあてること、水の量、あるいは、ひりょうについて知っているなら、植物はじゅんちょうに育ち、花を咲かせる。また、(N9)健康に育つように、両親は栄養のバランスを考え、情ちょがある人にするために、子供になにが必要であること考える。(N10)栽培者が知識があっても毎日水をやらなければかれてしまう。(N11)一方子供は毎日が学習であるので、両親は根気よく子供につきあい、いっしょに遊ぶことがひつよう。(N12)このように、植物にもこどもにも、育てるあいじょう、知識、労力がひつようである。

(Gardening and Child-raising have a common characteristic: the raiser exerts influence on the raised. Needless to say, both plants and children are sensitive to affection. If raised with affection and protection, plants grow healthily. Similarly, with the parents' affection, the children grow happily and healthily. If the raiser knows about the exposure to the sun, the amount of water, and the cost, the plants grow smoothly and bloom. And the parents consider the balance of nutrition so that their children grow healthily; and they consider what is needed for their children so that the children grow up to persons with emotions. Even though the raiser has knowledge, (the plants) wither if he does not give them water

everyday. On the other hand, as children learn everyday, it is necessary for the parents to keep their children company and play with them patiently. Thus, both for the plants and children, affection, knowledge, and labor in raising are necessary.)

Example 10
Subject 4's Recall Protocol for the Japanese Passage

(N1)園芸と育児には、共通性がある。(N12)つまりど
ちらも育てる人に、愛情と知識、更には労
力が必要であり、これらの要素を満たして、
はじめて植物も子供も立派に育つのである。



(There is a characteristic common to gardening and child-raising. Namely, in both, affection, knowledge, and labor on the part of the raiser are needed, and only if those factors are satisfied, both plants and children grow well.)

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